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The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of regular or substitute player status, as determined by basketball game playing time, on the self-concept and feelings of alienation of male high school basketball players. The relationship between alienation and self-concept was also explored.

The instrument employed to measure alienation was Dwight Dean's Alienation Scale which evaluates powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation and utilizes the Likert scoring system. Doudlah's seventy-five Self-Concept statements were administered through utilization of the Q-sort technique.

A total of twenty-seven male basketball players comprising the junior varsity and varsity teams of Smith High School, in Greensboro, North Carolina, were tested before and after the basketball season to determine if a change in self-concept or feelings of alienation occurred within or between the two groups, to determine the relationship between self-concept and alienation for all subjects, to determine if the relationship of self-concept to alienation was significantly different for the two groups, and to determine the relationship of the various dimensions of alienation to self-concept.

The data was treated statistically using analysis of variance and Fisher's "Z" Transformation for the significance of difference between correlation coefficients. The following

results were obtained: (1) There was no significant difference between the self-concept and alienation scores prior to and after a twelve week basketball season for the following groups: substitutes, regulars, total basketball squad.

(2) There was no significant difference with regard to self-concept and alienation scores between the regulars and substitutes prior to or after a twelve week basketball season.

(3) There was no statistically significant relationship between self-concept and alienation scores of the following groups on the initial or final tests: substitutes, regulars, total basketball squad.

(4) There was no significant difference between the substitutes and regular group in the relationship of self-concept to alienation on the initial or final test.

(5) There was a statistically significant relationship between self-concept scores and the powerlessness sub-scale of alienation.

On the basis of the statistical results it was concluded that a large discrepancy between real-self and ideal-self tended to be related to high alienation scores and a small discrepancy tended to be related to low alienation. In conclusion, the study revealed comparable effects of substitute and regular player status on the self-concept and feelings of alienation of male high school basketball players. Such conclusions suggested that the delineation of player status along the lines of substitute and regular does not appear to be a meaningful variable in terms of predicting changes in either self-concept or alienation.

APPROVAL STATEMENT

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT THE FOLLOWING THESIS

OF THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF

NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO

ALLENATION AND SELF CONCEPT

OF MALE HIGH SCHOOL

BASKETBALL PLAYERS

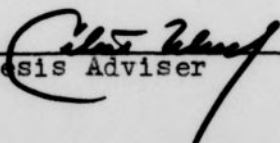
by

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A Thesis Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science in Physical Education

Greensboro
July, 1971

Approved by


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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with pleasure the writer expresses her sincere appreciation to Dr. Celeste Ulrich for her professional guidance, invaluable suggestions, warm encouragement, and for communicating more than just the nature and excitement of research analysis which in itself has provided inspiration and has sustained the writer throughout this learning endeavor.

For her assistance in recording subject's playing time, a special thanks is extended to Miss Daphne Hall. The writer would like to express gratitude to Miss Robberta Mesenbrink and Mr. Charles Chatham for their help in arranging testing procedures.

Also the writer wishes to thank the basketball players of Smith High School who participated in this study.

To her parents the writer expresses her deepest appreciation for their continual understanding and support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	6
III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
ALIENATION	8
Definition and Development	8
Causes and Correlates	22
ALIENATION AND SELF-CONCEPT	29
SELF-CONCEPT	33
Definition	33
Measurement Instruments	37
Development and Adjustment	40
Relationship to Physical Education and Athletics	44
IV. PROCEDURES	49
PURPOSE	49
SELECTION OF SUBJECTS	49
DURATION AND GROUPING	49
SELECTION AND ADMINISTRATION OF TESTS	52
Alienation Test	52
Scoring of the Alienation Test	53
Self-Concept Test	54
Scoring of the Q-Sort	57

CHAPTER	PAGE
V. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA	59
ANALYSIS OF DATA	59
INTERPRETATION OF DATA	66
CRITIQUE	70
VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	72
BIBLIOGRAPHY	78
APPENDICES	86
APPENDIX A Playing Time Rating Sheet	87
APPENDIX B Total Playing Time In Minutes For a Basketball Season (Fifteen Games) .	89
APPENDIX C Alienation Test	92
APPENDIX D Total Alienation Scores For Initial and Final Testing (Substitute Players)	95
APPENDIX E Total Alienation Scores For Initial and Final Testing (Regular Players) .	97
APPENDIX F Alienation Sub-scale Scores For Initial and Final Testing (Substitute Play- ers)	99
APPENDIX G Alienation Sub-scale Scores for Initial and Final Testing (Regular Players) .	101
APPENDIX H Self-Concept Q-Sort Statements	103
APPENDIX I Directions (Self-Sort) and (Ideal- Sort)	106

APPENDIX J	Self-Concept Recording Sheet and Tabulation Sheet	109
APPENDIX K	Correlation Coefficients Between Self and Ideal-Self Sorts (Substitute Players)	112
APPENDIX L	Correlation Coefficients Between Self and Ideal-Self Sorts (Regular Play- ers)	114
APPENDIX M	Nomograph	116

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I. Analysis of Variance of Change in Self- concept from Initial to Final Test for Two Groups of Subjects	61
II. Analysis of Variance of Change in Aliena- tion from Initial to Final Test for Two Groups of Subjects	62
III. Correlation Coefficients Between Self- Concept and Total Alienation Scores on Initial and Final Tests	63
IV. Significance of Difference of Correlation Coefficients of Self-Concept and Aliena- tion Between Substitute and Regular Players .	64
V. Correlation Coefficients Between Self-Concept and Alienation Sub-Scales	66
VI. Total Playing Time in Minutes For a Basket- ball Season	90
VII. Total Alienation Scores for Initial and Final Testing (Substitute Players)	96
VIII. Total Alienation Scores for Initial and Final Testing (Regular Players)	98
IX. Alienation Sub-scale Scores for Initial and Final Testing (Substitute Players)	100

TABLE

PAGE

X.	Alienation Sub-scale Scores for Initial and Final Testing (Regular Players)	102
XI.	Correlation Coefficients Between Self and Ideal-Self Sorts (Substitute Players)	113
XII.	Correlation Coefficients Between Self and Ideal-Self Sorts (Regular Players)	115

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Man acquires a self-consciousness which includes a conceptual portrait of "I" reflected by the integration of a physical, spiritual, and social self. The development of the parameters of self-concept are dependent on the inter-relationship of self with others, a spiritual concept, and nature. For many individuals today, it would seem that this relationship has become increasingly difficult to achieve, resulting in a lack of integration as manifested by decreasing self unity and subsequent alienation.

Feelings of alienation are not unique in the 20th century. Indeed, the history of alienation may be synonymous with the history of mankind. Ever since Descartes dared to enunciate "Cogito, ergo sum" initiating the dawn of reason, the division of man and nature has been apparent. Nietzsche's announcement that God is dead has added to man's feelings of isolation. Also the Marxist belief that man has lost control over the conditions and fruits of his labor and his labor is no longer his own but the property of another, augmented the further separation of man from society, and ultimately himself.

Alienation is the cultural climate of modern man. Daily we are exposed to the effects of technology which have

helped to create man's environment and to destroy it. The feelings of dehumanization, automation, and manipulation of individuals regardless of race, sex, age or status are paramount. Pessimism and despair permeate the arts, as the theme depicting life as meaningless or absurd is central to such works as The Stranger by Camus or the second best musical of 1971 entitled The Me Nobody Knows.

Traditionally man has sought meaning through institutions which have provided a social pattern for his life. However change itself, as evident in the functioning of planned obsolescence, has been institutionalized, and because of such organization alienation is pervasive in today's society. Consequently, in response to alienation we have witnessed the "Dawning of the Age of Aquarius." The flower children, seeking meaning in an age of dehumanization, have reverted to nature for security in their quest or "cop-out" for purposeful existence. Such an attitude is evident in the contemporary "natural look" in hair style and dress. The rock opera, Jesus Christ Superstar is perhaps an earnest attempt by today's generation to portray a significant religious event in meaningful terms. The search for self or the "real me" by the young has become the rationale for existence and has been pursued through exploration of the senses utilizing yoga, music, sex, and the mind expanding drugs. Each of these approaches emphasizes total involvement.

Sport, because it is a part of the established pattern, has not been perceived by the young as a means of alleviating personal alienation. However, sport has the potential to offer, through participation, greater self awareness at all levels, and a sense of freedom, which is a function of total involvement. Sport also has the potential to assist in helping the individual gain control over self and environment.

Participation in sport may facilitate self awareness at a variety of levels. From birth, physical awareness of one's body is enhanced through movement in different mediums, at varying speeds, and with distinguishable degrees of force. All senses are utilized in the determination of where one is in space, time, and the proximity of others. All the senses are also used in reacting, being and becoming.

Identity, in terms of social awareness of one's role, is clearly defined in sport. The ambivalence of "Who I am" is removed for the duration of the contest. The function of the guard is specifically delineated from the forward's position and that role playing self is known. The recognition of the role of team member and the responsibilities in that role to the team and self are an intricate part of achieving the cooperation which is necessary in sport.

Who one is, often is determined by how one performs. In this respect scoring rules which are inherent to most sports are related to the individual's sense of self worth and need for self evaluation. Sport pits man against himself,

the environment, and others and provides a self-testing situation which is unique in its effect on different individuals.

The feeling of performing a skill adequately may leave one with a feeling of accomplishment. Satisfaction with performance occurs at different levels of mastery, different levels of involvement, and such performance satisfaction is only slightly related to winning and losing. To be cognizant that one is able to ski down a slope, with a reasonable assurance of not falling, allows the participant to experience more than the mechanics of skiing. It allows and promotes for the involvement of the total being with nature, a spiritual reference, and self. This experience is a means of self discovery and the individual has the potential for self actualization, i.e. emergence of a new self.

Thus, sport offers the participant the opportunity to extend one's self awareness. However this extension can be prostituted by the player, coach, and/or crowd. When the emphasis is only on winning, or the material gains from winning, the player may feel he is a social product or commodity to be used, manipulated and replaced. The player himself may become concerned with only the victory and glory associated with sport.

Therefore "the All-American boy" has the potential "to be," or to become the alienated hero. If the latter attitude prevails, its nature and its causes need to be studied.

Are feelings of alienation, if they do indeed exist, predominately perceived by the player who sits on the bench all season waiting to catch one pass, or to shoot one basket, or is alienation more characteristic of the star athlete who not only plays every game but is advertised as a statistic? Is sport functional or is it dysfunctional in its effects on some individuals? Can it be both meaningful and institutionalized? Does man come to know himself more fully in sport or does sport help alienate him from society?

To attempt to provide some illumination with respect to man's feelings of self and alienation, this study examined the effects of basketball player status on the self-concept and feelings of alienation. In investigating this topic it was hoped that a more lucid understanding of the effects of sport on the participants might be gained.

CHAPTER II

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of regular or substitute player status, as determined by basketball game playing time, on the self-concept and feelings of alienation of male high school basketball players. The relationship between alienation and self-concept was also investigated.

The study was designed to determine if change in self-concept and alienation occurred within an athletic team from the beginning of a twelve week season to the end, to determine if the amount of time an athlete participated in games throughout the season significantly altered his self-concept and alienation, and to determine if a relationship existed between self-concept and alienation.

The following operational definitions have been utilized in this study:

Regular player - a player who actively participated in the basketball games throughout the season for a greater total number of minutes than the mean playing time for the entire team.

Substitute player - a player who actively participated in the basketball games throughout the season for a lesser total number of minutes than the mean playing time for the

entire team.

Self-concept - a correlation coefficient between self-sort and ideal-sort as measured by Doudlah's (1962) seventy-five self-concept statements utilizing the Q-sort technique.

Alienation - a total score on Dean's (1961) 24-item Alienation Scale which evaluates powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation and utilizes the Likert scoring system.

CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE
ALIENATION

Definition and Development

At times the man, shuddering at the alienation between the I and the world, comes to reflect that something is to be done (Buber, 1958, p. 70).

Alienation has been defined as, "a social situation which is beyond the control of the actor, and hence unresponsive to his basic needs" (Etzioni, 1968, p. 879), and as "a subjective state, a characteristic of an individual's mental condition" (Mizruchi, 1964, p. 38). Each of these extracted definitions reflects a divergent disciplinary approach, i.e. sociological and psychological respectively, and rest at extreme polar positions on a continuum simultaneously depicting theoretical conjecture and scientific research.

A socio-psychological perspective of alienation has focused on the relationship of the presumed alien to society, other individuals and himself. Kaufman asserted this view in stating that a person is alienated when, " . . . his relationship to something else has certain features which result in avoidable discontent or loss of satisfaction" (Kaufman, 1965, p. 143). Josephson also advocated this

perspective. He wrote, "Whatever the approach, central to the definition of alienation is the idea that man has lost his identity or 'selfhood'" (Josephson, 1962, p. 14). Lowry summed up the socio-psychological position and added clarity to a definition of alienation in suggesting that it is a process.

As the term is generally employed, alienation refers to the process whereby one becomes estranged from his environment. As a consequence, he eventually experiences himself as alien or foreign. The alienated individual responds passively or apathetically to his environment, loses touch with others. As a result, he no longer can develop an adequate self-concept within the context of community life (Lowry, 1962, p. 429).

The theoretical development of the concept alienation can be found in the philosophical writings of Hegel. He argued, as reported by Bell, that alienation:

. . . was the radical dissociation of the 'self' into both actor and thing into a subject that strives to control its own fate, and an object which is manipulated by others (Bell, 1959, p. 936).

Feurerback added a psychological as well as religious interpretation to alienation. He perceived it as a separation of the material world from the spiritual world and proposed that the way to overcome alienation rested in bringing the divine back into man (Feuerback, 1967).

Marx made a decisive break with the abstract, philosophical tradition of explaining alienation. Alienation interpreted by Marx was a class related ideology unique to

the working class and a consequence of labor in a capitalistic society. Marx described alienation in reference to labor,

Labor does not only create goods, it also produces itself and the worker as a commodity, and indeed in the same proportion as it produces goods The performance of work appears in the sphere of political economy as a vitiation of the worker, objectification as a loss and as servitude to the object, and appropriation as alienation (Marx, 1961, p. 95).

Max Weber extended Marx's concept of alienated labor to all organized and institutionalized work. He wrote,

In principle, the modern organization of the civil service separates the bureau from the private domicile of the official, and in general, bureaucracy segregates official activity as something distinct from the sphere of private life (Weber, 1946, p. 197).

Kierkegaard, in opposition to the Marx point of view, argued that a specific cause of alienation did not exist and consequently the elimination of capitalism would not alleviate alienation. Bell interpreted Kierkegaard as universalizing alienation as an "ineluctable, pervasive condition of man" (Bell, 1959, p. 946).

Although Fromm, in "The Sane Society", discussed alienation as an effect of capitalism on personality, he also suggested that the concept of alienation is derived from the Old Testament concept of idolatry. Fromm stressed,

The essential difference between monotheism and polytheism is not one of the number of gods, but lies in the fact of self-alienation. Man spends his energy, his artistic capacities on building an idol, and then he worships this idol, which is nothing but the result of his own human

effort. His life forces have flown into a "thing," and this thing, having become an idol, is not experienced as a result of his own productive effort, but as something apart from himself, over and against him, which he worships and to which he submits (Fromm, 1955, pp. 121-22).

Therefore every act of submissive worship is an act of alienation as interpreted by Fromm. Consequently, from the empirical observations it can be hypothesized that alienation can be perceived as a process, as opposed to being an explicit property of a society or an individual.

Anomie and anomia are terms associated with alienation which have been employed to describe a condition of a society and individual in that society respectively. Both of these terms have contributed to confusion in the literature concerning alienation, since at times they have been used as synonyms for alienation. Consequently, some research concerned with anomie and anomia really has been concerned with alienation. In general, an anomic state is the inability of an individual or a society to select a normative role, while alienation is the rejection of role for an individual or society.

Anomie was defined as, "a social state of normlessness or anarchy;" (Horton, 1964, p. 285), and as, "a social state in which the society's norms and goals are no longer capable of exerting social control" (Mizruchi, 1964, p. 45).

Anomie was derived from a Greek word meaning "lack of law" (Krill, 1969, pp. 35-36). Merton stated that The Oxford

English Dictionary reported that the English historian William Lambarde, was writing of "anomy" in the sixteenth century as a condition that brings, "disorder, doubt and uncertaintie over all," (Merton, 1964, p. 226). In the seventeenth century Durkheim translated the word "anomy" into the French "anomie" which is popular today.

Durkheim, the first sociologist to study anomie, based his theoretical position on a perspective of society as an entity greater than the sum of its parts,

Society is not only something attracting the sentiments and activities of individuals with unequal force. It is also a power controlling them (Durkheim, 1951, p. 241).

Rates of deviation and the state of law and punishment were for Durkheim behavioral indices of anomie. He focused on the relationship between the failure of social restraints and suicide rates, and differentiated three types and consequent causes of suicide which he designated as egotistic, altruistic, and anomic. In reference to anomic suicide he wrote that it, " . . . results from man's activity's lacking regulation and his consequent sufferings" (Durkheim, 1951, p. 258).

Robert Merton (1938) formulated a cultural explanation of deviant behavior in terms of anomie. Merton's anomic theory was broader in its orientation than Durkheim's, i.e. Merton endeavored to explain not only suicide but delinquency, alcoholism, crime, mental disorder, and many behaviors not necessarily negative such as behavior of the radical and the

aged. Anomie defined by Merton was:

. . . conceived as a breakdown in the cultural structure, occurring particularly when there is an acute disjunction between cultural norms and goals and the social structured capacities of members of the group to act in accord with them (Merton, 1957, p. 162).

Merton assumed the rate of deviant behavior within a given society would vary with social class, ethnic or racial status and perhaps other identifying characteristics of individuals because the inability to achieve the goals of society by available means would be unequally distributed throughout a social system. Merton is best known for his five types of individual adaptations to achieve goals which are conformity, innovation, ritualism, retreatism, and rebellion (Merton, 1957, p. 140).

Two studies have attempted to measure anomie in relation to deviant behavior. Lander, using factor analysis, studied 8,464 cases of delinquency in Baltimore between 1939-1942 and found,

Delinquency was essentially related to the instability or anomie of an area and was not a function of, nor associated basically with economic characteristics (Lander, 1954, p. 59).

Bordua, (1958) in a replication study, confirmed Lander's findings.

Because of the need to look at the individual within the system the terms "anomia" or "anomy" have come into usage. MacIver has been prominent in the development of this

psychological concept. He defines it as, "a state of mind in which the individual's sense of social cohesion - the mainspring of his morale - is broken or fatally weakened" (MacIver, 1950, p. 85).

In distinguishing between anomie and anomia Merton wrote,

Anomie refers to a property of a social system, not to the state of mind of this or that individual within the system (Merton, 1964, p. 226).

Recently studies that have attempted to measure the degree of anomie for a social system have done so by measuring the anomia for the individuals. Merton in a chapter in Clinard's book suggested that:

. . . anomia for individuals in a particular social unit (neighborhood, clubs, gangs, formal organization, and the like) can of course be aggregated to find out the rate or proportion having a designated degree of anomia. This aggregated figure would then constitute an index of anomie for the given social unit (Merton, 1964, p. 229).

Attempts to measure anomia have utilized the scale devised by Leo Srole in 1956. The five items of his scale measure "eunomia" and "anomia". He defines these terms as, "The former originally denoted a well ordered condition in a society or state, the latter its opposite" (Srole, 1956, p. 710). In clarifying these concepts he wrote,

This variable eunomia-anomia continuum representing variations in interpersonal integration is conceived as referring to the individual's generalized, pervasive sense of

"self-to-others distance" and "self-to-others alienation" at the other pole of the continuum (Srole, 1956, p. 711).

Srole utilized his scale to determine the relationship of anomia, authoritarianism, and prejudice of 401 white Springfield, Massachusetts' transit riders. To measure authoritarianism he used Adorno's modified F Scale. He found anomia positively correlated with prejudice and inversely related to socio-economic status; authoritarianism not correlated with prejudice when anomia was held constant; the anomia and authoritarian scales indicated two discrete latent continuations, and anomia as a more important correlate of prejudice than authoritarian character structure (Srole, 1956). He concluded,

That anomia is a factor related to the formation of negative, rejective attitudes toward minority groups . . . anomia scores are related to attitudes toward minorities independently of the personality trend measured by the authoritarianism scale (Srole, 1956, pp. 714-715).

Srole's results lent support to Merton's theory that a relationship exists between socio-economic status and deviancy. Although Roberts and Rokeach (1956) and McDill (1961) reported contrary findings to Srole's there has been substantial research in support of Merton's theory that anomie, as measured by a test of individuals for anomia, is inversely related to socio-economic status and, consequently, is more prevalent in the lower than upper ends of the social strata (Bell, 1957), (Meier and Bell, 1959), (Tumin and Collins, 1959), (Killian and Grigg,

1962), (Mizruchi, 1964), and (Olsen, 1965).

Since the development of Srole's scale much research has been published using anomia as a dependent variable subscribing to Merton's assumption that anomia results when individuals lack access to the means for achievement of life goals. The findings of this research will be reported in light of Bell's (1957) findings since he was the first to examine anomia as a dependent variable.

Bell (1957) examined several determinants of anomia in his study of 701 adult males in an interview survey of four census tracts in San Francisco. In agreement with other investigators utilizing the Srole scale, Bell found anomia inversely related to the following variables in addition to socio-economic status: urbanism, level of aspiration (Rhodes, 1964), readiness for desegregation (Tumin and Collins, 1959), and voting and being politically informed (McDill and Ridley, 1962), (Templeton, 1966).

In contrast to the findings of Bell (1957) that holding social class constant negated differences in anomia among Catholics, Protestants, and Jews, two studies have found that Protestants were higher on measures of anomia than Catholics (Dean and Reeves, 1962), (Wassef, 1967). These latter two studies used a self-report normlessness scale devised by Dean (1961) and tested college women. Either or both of these factors might account for the difference in findings. In a recent study religion and income were not significantly

correlated to either achievement values or anomia (Barnett, 1970, p. 133).

Thus, Merton's theory of anomie has been subjected to considerable research; however, there are conflicting findings as a result of variances in instruments and subjects. The paucity of replication of studies, in most instances also accounts for conflicting explanations.

It was hoped that the research reported on anomie and anomia would enhance the clarification of these terms and assist in differentiating them from alienation. Several authors wrote from a philosophical point of view on the determination of appropriateness of usage for both alienation and anomie. Mizruchi wrote,

The minimal requirement for using either "anomie" or "alienation" is a reply to certain questions: alienation from what?; anomie in which normative system? (Mizruchi, 1964, p. 27).

Horton added a subjective perspective to the separability of terms as he wrote,

The critical focus of alienation is on whatever social conditions separate the individual as an extension of self through self activity, rather than as an abstract entity independent of individual selves (Horton, 1964, p. 285).

Nettler distinguished anomie from alienation by defining an alienated person as:

. . . one who has been estranged from, made unfriendly toward, his society and the culture it carries Similarly one may conceivably be alienated with or without personal disorganization and with or without

participating in behaviors that are ordinarily used as indexes of an anomie (Nettler, 1957, p. 672).

Nettler studied the relationship of anomia, as measured by the Srole scale, to alienation. He measured alienation by constructing a seventeen item questionnaire from the common attitudes of 37 people he suggested were alienated. Based on data from 515 adults with diverse organizational affiliation, he concluded, "Alienation as here measured is not the same thing as Srole's anomia, although it is statistically related (+.309) (Nettler, 1957, p. 676).

The literature pertaining to alienation contains three kinds of statements; (1) statements about the nature of alienation, (2) experimental studies of the concept of alienation, and (3) studies of the causes and correlates of alienation.

Melvin Seeman in a classic essay, "On The Meaning of Alienation" presented his review of the nature and usage of alienation in traditional sociological thought and then proceeded to interpret alienation in terms of the concepts of expectancy and reward. Seeman's frame of reference was social, psychological. The five variants of alienation as defined by Seeman were,

Powerlessness - the expectancy or probability held by the individual that his own behavior cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcements, he seeks. Meaninglessness - the individual is unclear as to what he ought to believe - a low expectancy that satisfactory predictions about future outcome of behavior can be made. Normlessness - high expectancy that socially unapproved behaviors are

required to achieve given goals. Isolation - individual assigns low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in the given society. Self-estrangement - the degree of dependence of the given behavior upon anticipated future rewards (Seeman, 1959, pp. 784-790).

The Marx view of alienation as an unidimensional condition of man is contrary to Seeman's and others (Dean, 1961), (Lowry, 1962) who view alienation as a multidimensional phenomenon. Research studies seem to support the latter view and will be reported chronologically.

Dean (1961) chose to deal with three dimensions of alienation: powerlessness, normlessness, social isolation. He gave no reason for omitting meaninglessness and self-estrangement. However, he suggested that a possible sub-type of normlessness may be purposelessness and conflict of norms which might be interpreted as being similar to Seeman's concept of meaninglessness. Self-estrangement may be incorporated in Dean's definition of social isolation which was, "a feeling of separation from the group or of isolation from group standards" (Dean, 1961, p. 755).

In order to determine the relationships among the above three components of alienation Dean constructed three scales to measure each dimension. One hundred thirty-nine items were judged as to each items' applicability or nonapplicability to each component of alienation. Agreement on the part of at least five of the seven judges was the requirement for acceptability of an item. Reliability of each sub-scale, was tested

by the split-half technique ($N=384$) and corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula. Reliability coefficients were reported as follows: Powerlessness, .78; Normlessness, .73; Social Isolation, .84; and Total Alienation Scale, .78 (Dean, 1961, p. 756). In regard to correlation coefficients between the sub-scales, Dean found them all to be above the .01 per cent level of significance and concluded,

This suggests that it is quite feasible to consider the sub-scales as belonging to the same general concept. However, there appears to be enough independence among the sub-scales to warrant treating them as independent variables (Dean, 1961, p. 756).

In a pretest application of 73 college students Dean's scale did not significantly correlate with Adorno's "F" scale of authoritarianism nor with Srole's anomia scale (Dean, 1961, p. 756).

Dean's sample consisted of 1108 randomly selected subjects within four voting wards who were sent the alienation scale in questionnaire form. The questionnaire was returned by 433 and Dean used 384. Dean found support for all his hypotheses, i.e. a small positive correlation between alienation and advancing age; a negative correlation between alienation and social status as measured by a modified version of the North-Hatt Occupational Prestige Scale, the amount of education attained, and income; and a negative correlation between alienation and rural background (Dean, 1961, p. 757). However, Dean was not entirely satisfied

with the correlation coefficients and this lead Dean to suggest that,

Perhaps the individual's identification with, or Alienation from, Society, is experienced with reference to primary groups or voluntary associations (Dean, 1961, p. 758).

Support for Seeman's (1959) and Dean's (1961) position concerning the multidimensional perspective of alienation was offered in studies of leadership structure of a community (Lowry, 1962), differences in powerlessness and normlessness of manual and non-manual workers (Neal and Rettig, 1963), and dimensions of alienation when correlated with various skill levels in industrial settings (Blauner, 1964).

In 1967 Neal and Rettig, after factor analysis of Srole's anomia scale and their own scale of powerlessness and normlessness, found support for alienation as a single domain as well as a multidimensional domain (Neal and Rettig, 1967, p. 60). The authors have pointed out however that,

The special advantage of the multidimensional approach is that it permits a clearer specification of those alienation components which relate more efficaciously to the independent or dependent variables in question (Neal and Rettig, 1967, p. 60-61).

Thus, most research studies yielded the conclusion of some independence between alienation dimensions. It is important to note that the above studies were limited to paper and pencil methodology which measures verbal attitudes of the self-report variety. Lie scales have not been widely employed nor have projective techniques.

One study utilized the Thematic Apperception Test and a Word Association Test and its findings indicated the need for more research (Clark, 1969). Clark compared 30 male Catholic college students from St. John's University to 20 Harvard students which he defined as his normative group on the following measures of alienation: Affect Questionnaire, Self Rating, Sentence Completion Test, Word Association Test, and Thematic Apperception Test. No differences between groups were reported but he found that, "30 subjects showed significantly less alienation on a verbal projective and significantly more alienation on a pictorial projective measure" (Clark, 1969, p. 167). Therefore differences were found between projective techniques and not between self-report measures and projective techniques.

Causes and Correlates

Most research that has probed the cause or causes of alienation has been initiated by psychologists or has revolved around a psychological frame of reference. It should be noted that cause-effect relationships are presumptuous rather than factual. The following research studies implied causal factors of alienation.

Alienation in early studies was found to be related to parental authority and was highest among those adolescents whose parents were either domineering or lax (Whitehorn, 1961). Klein (1969) conducted a study of freshmen psychology women divided into high, middle, and low alienation groups as

measured by a Manifest Alienation Measure and found,

That low-alienated girls report few socio-emotional difficulties, display similarity to their mothers, and perceive their mothers' child-rearing practices positively. On the other hand, high-alienated coeds report socioemotional difficulties, show little similarity to either parent or the measures utilized, demonstrate a negative perception of their mothers, and show a relative lack of differentiation between parents in terms of child-rearing practices (Klein, 1969, p. 476).

McClosky and Schaar supported the psychological basis for alienation as a state of mind irrespective of the state of society. They measured anomy using a specifically constructed scale for this study and a sample of an adult population in Minnesota as well as an adult national sample of 1484 subjects. McClosky and Schaar found that:

. . . personality factors are correlated with anomy at all levels of mental disturbance, and that they function independently to produce anomy among people in all educational categories and in all sectors of society (McClosky and Schaar, p. 39).

Although experimental research of alienation only commenced a decade ago, alienation has been related to numerous variables in that short time span. However, it is evident that precise replications of studies utilizing the same instruments and/or type of institutionalized or non-institutionalized population samples are critically needed.

From a socio-psychological perspective a substantial amount of research has been conducted in terms of possible correlates of alienation. The research has suggested that an inverse relationship exists between alienation and

organizational participation, and a curvilinear relationship between alienation and organizational structure.

Clark conducted a study of 361 men utilizing the interview method with a specifically prepared schedule of participation in an agricultural organization. The relationship between alienation and participation in a specific organization was found to be negative (Clark, 1959, p. 851).

Rose's study lent support to Clark's findings as he examined reported alienation of 195 leaders from Minnesota statewide organizations using Srole's five item scale of anomie. Rose reported:

. . . that group leaders are more likely to be socially integrated and less likely to be alienated from the society than the general population. We interpreted this in terms of the very participation and activity of the group leaders rather than in terms of their personalities (Rose, 1962, p. 837).

The relationship between organizational structure and alienation, more specifically the powerlessness variant, was examined by Neal and Seeman in 1964. They conducted a study of 609 manual and non-manual workers to determine the degree of powerlessness as measured by an Internal Versus External Control Scale. The North-Hatt prestige scale was used as the measure of occupational mobility. A higher degree of powerlessness for the unorganized worker was reported as opposed to the member of a work-based organization. In the interpretation of their findings they wrote:

. . . that the higher powerlessness of the unorganized worker is not simply a function of his socio-economic status. Presumably, powerlessness is related to the fact of organization or lack of it (Neal and Seeman, 1964, p. 225).

Thus, Neal and Seeman have extended the well substantiated finding that anomie as well as alienation are inversely related to socio-economic status and in addition have inferred that another variable may be present, i.e. organizational structure.

Aiken (1966) examined the relationship between two dimensions of organization: participation, and social structure formalization; two types of alienation: alienation from work, and alienation from expressive relations. The subjects were 314 employees of welfare organizations and were interviewed using tests explicitly constructed to measure the variables for this study. They concluded in support of previous research that alienation was higher in those organizations which staff members have a small voice in agency-wide decisions and:

. . . that work alienation depends more on the degree to which staff members participate in agency-wide decision-making, while alienation from fellow workers depends more on the degree to which supervisors must be consulted in fulfilling individually assigned tasks (Aiken, 1966, p. 505).

Aiken, in suggesting that high structured jobs result in work alienation, and Neal and Seeman's findings of high feelings of powerlessness of the unorganized worker might suggest that a curvilinear relationship may exist between alienation and

organizational structure.

In addition to research on organizational participation and structure, alienation and specifically powerlessness has been correlated with political behavior, i.e. positively correlated with political apathy (Dean, 1960), alienated taxpayers who vote tend to vote "no" and were more often found in lower socio-economic classes (Horton, 1962, p. 493), and opponents of fluoridation had greater feelings of helplessness and a lower sense of political efficacy than proponents (Gamson, 1961, p. 536). These findings taken together suggested that persons in low socio-economic positions tend to perceive the world as a threatening place and, that voting down local issues may be in part a type of mass protest (Thompson, and Horton, 1960, p. 195).

Although the majority of research revolving around alienation both as a total concept and the correlates of alienation pertained to the areas of deviancy, participation in various degrees of organizational structure, and political behavior, there were several studies undertaken to investigate the relationship of alienation to learning. These will be discussed chronologically.

Clark (1959) utilized a knowledge test concerning procedures and policies in an agricultural-cooperative organization, and a composite, alienation self-report of the members in the organization concerning their perceived degree

of power or influence in the organization. He found alienation and knowledge of the workers about the organizational structure negatively related.

Seeman conducted a study of alienation and learning in a hospital setting in which he matched 86 patients resulting in 43 characterized by either high alienation or low alienation. The measure of alienation as defined as powerlessness was The Internal-External Control Scale which was based on the assumption that external control referred to the belief that reinforcements are unrelated to one's own behaviors and therefore beyond personal control. Knowledge was measured by a 20 item true-false test on patient information. Seeman's results indicated that,

The more alienated patients are found to have significantly lower scores on the test of objective knowledge than their matched counterparts who are low in alienation (Seeman, 1962, p. 777).

Seeman also noted that he held constant social circumstances and directly tested the relevance of alienation for learning. Consequently, he wrote, "our data . . . speak not only about hospitals and patients, but also about the general theme of alienation in contemporary life" (Seeman, 1962, p. 782). Seeman replicated his findings using inmates (Seeman, 1963), and Swedish workers (Seeman, 1966).

Brickford in 1969 extended Seeman's findings to other dimensions of alienation in addition to powerlessness such as normlessness, meaninglessness, and social isolation.

Using 161 students in a Canadian Vocational Training Program in Ontario, Brickford wrote in support of Seeman's contentions, "The data argue that differential learning is a function of differential alienation per se" (Brickford, 1969, p. 52).

Learning in relation to minority groups has presented a viable research topic and the role of alienation may be significant in shedding light on minority group differences. Middleton in 1963, using six alienation items with unrelated questions to form an attitude survey, tested 207 white and 99 negro males in central Florida. He found that,

The percentage of Negroes who feel alienated is far higher than the percentage of whites for every type of alienation except cultural estrangement (Middleton, 1963, p. 975).

Lefcourt's study of negro inmates using the External-Internal Control Scale for the measure of the powerlessness variant of alienation supported Middleton's general findings of greater alienation of negroes. Therefore in light of his results he hypothesized, ". . . that Negroes' poorer performance on intelligence tests reflects a withdrawal from middle-class achievement goals" (Lefcourt, 1965, p. 380).

One study has reported reverse findings than the above. Gottlieb (1969) examined differences between white and black, poor, jobless, out of school youth; and white and black in school youth using a specifically devised questionnaire to measure alienation. Gottlieb found greater alienation among white poor than black poor youth aged 16-18 and greater

alienation among the jobless group. The difference in findings may be attributed to the instrument utilized. Gottlieb's general findings add support to the theory that limited access to goals result in greater alienation and perhaps suggest that this is more important than race.

In conclusion of this section of research, the empirical literature has offered support for the conceptualization of alienation as a process as distinguished from the states of anomie and anomia. The majority of research indicated that alienation may be composed of several different dimensions and that it was influenced by various sociological and psychological factors, i.e. such as socio-economic class, race, religion, organizational participation, and organizational structure. Further it was noted that the alienated individual behaves differently in terms of political behavior and learning. Therefore, if it can be assumed that individuals are not born alienated, then it seems appropriate to examine the acquisition of feelings of alienation or change in alienation. It is apparent that none of the studies reviewed examined a change in alienation utilizing a test-retest design. Thus, the need for this design which this writer utilized is evident, if indeed alienation may change as a result of sociological and/or psychological factors.

ALIENATION AND SELF-CONCEPT

Most research has dealt with alienation as a socio-psychological construct, however alienation from self and

from others may be perceived in terms of a psychological frame of reference. Research that was completed from this perspective has examined alienation and some part of the self structure.

Davids conceptualized the alienation syndrome as a psychological construct of five operational personality criteria, pessimism, distrust, anxiety, egocentricity, and resentment (Davids, 1955, p. 22). Davids conducted a study on alienation, social apperception and ego structure of 20 undergraduates from Harvard University. He instructed the subjects to answer the 80 item, six-point agree-disagree scale based on the five above dimensions, the way the average Harvard student would rate them, the way he himself would rate them and the way his "ideal" person would rate them. Davids concluded that:

. . . individuals who are high on this syndrome tend to apperceive other people in their social environment as more alienated than they really are, yet less alienated than themselves.

. . . individuals who are high on alienation showed greater discrepancy between themselves and the apperceived average person and between themselves and their ideal person than did individuals who are low on alienation. Finally it was found that individuals who view the world and their relationship to it in a negative light have a weak ego structure as estimated by experienced clinical judgment (Davids, 1955, p. 27).

Davids' results in terms of intercorrelations between the five operational criteria, i.e. that subjects who are high on any one of the criteria are high on all of them (Davids, 1955, p.24),

lent support to his hypothesis that alienation is a syndrome.

Hajda conducted a study of alienation and integration of student intellectuals using a National Opinion Research Center questionnaire administered to 2360 graduate students, and concluded:

. . . that alienation derives more from perception of anti-intellectualism in the large society, than from self definition as an intellectual (Hajda, 1961, p. 765).

He interpreted this finding to be consistent with his theoretical position that the intensity of alienation varies with "the degree to which the membership collectivities to which one belongs represent or symbolize the main body of the society and are infused with the prevalent values, norms, beliefs" (Hajda, 1961, p. 765).

Couch examined self-identification and alienation of college students using fourteen items of Dean's Alienation Scale, Kuhn's Twenty Statement Test, a modified form of Kuhn's test, i.e. a response was asked for in relation to "I" as opposed to "I am", and a self report of satisfaction. His purpose for this study was based on the proposition that if:

. . . an important part of the acquisition of self is the internalization of statuses and roles assigned an individual by others is accepted, it follows that measures of the degree of internalization of the statuses and role assigned would tap an important dimension of human behavior (Couch, 1966, p. 255).

Couch's conclusions concerning the alienation variable were that those individuals with low alienation scores tended to

make more frequent use of the being verb in identifying themselves indicating greater satisfaction with statuses and roles, however, he found no statistically significant relationship between the alienation scores and reported satisfaction.

Dorn (1968) examined alienation and self-concept of delinquents and non-delinquents. Utilizing a specially constructed alienation scale and the Kuhn Twenty Statement Test, Dorn measured a male adolescent population which included institutionalized delinquents, and non-delinquents. He found that institutionalized delinquents were more anxious and more alienated than the non-delinquent adolescents, and self derogatory remarks were positively related to alienation (Dorn, 1968, p. 535).

Gould (1969) studied conformity and marginality of 429 freshmen and sophomore college students as measured by a battery of attitude and personality measures including a Manifest Alienation Measure designed for this study. He proposed the following polar hypotheses,

1. An alienated individual deeply craving a relatedness to a group from which he feels estranged, will be more likely to respond to pressure from that group than an individual who experiences his position in the group as securely established.
2. Conversely, an alienated individual having experienced continual frustration and disappointment in his attempts to relate meaningfully, will tend to devalue the group, adopt defensive and insular styles, and as a result will be less likely to respond to pressure than an individual who experiences his position in the group as more securely established (Gould, 1969, p. 41).

In support of the first hypothesis, Gould found, "the high alienated subjects conformed to peer group pressure significantly more than the low alienated subjects" (Gould, 1969, p. 57).

The numerous instruments exclusively developed to measure alienation and the multiplicity of tools utilized in measuring self-concept which are characteristic of the above studies, suggest that more research conducted in light of the above variables and more valid and reliable measures are needed. Perhaps then the relationship, if any, between self-concept and alienation can be generalized into a principle upon which prognostication of behavior may be based.

SELF-CONCEPT

Definition

The study of "self theory" is a psychological endeavor and those who have written most prolifically about "self" have for the most part been psychologists. One of the earliest psychologists to address himself to the topic was William James (1890) who dedicated an entire chapter, "The Consciousness of Self" to this topic and who perceived the constituents of the phenomenal self as, "the material self; the social self; and the spiritual self." (James, 1890, p. 292). The ego was considered as the fourth constituent but not as a phenomenological construct.

Freud (1938), however, considered the ego as more

important than the self in relation to understanding human behavior. Basic to his personality theory was first, the assumption of psychic determinism, i. e. human behavior was motivated or directed toward obtaining specific goals which are based on instinctual drives, and secondly, unconscious motivation. Therefore in reviewing Freudian theory Rotter wrote in a chapter entitled, "Personality Theory" in Helson and Bevan's book (1968) that,

While specific behaviors may change as a result of experience, the major personality variables are considered to be very stable after the first six years of development (Rotter, 1968, p. 475).

Mead, on the other hand, emphasized the social nature of the self. In summarizing Mead's position on self in relation to the understanding of behavior, Pfuetze wrote,

Men are not just "driven," nor manipulated like puppets, nor determined by external pressure, they transform their own drives and urges into anticipated satisfactions which "pull" them on to action (Pfuetze, 1954, p. 50).

The social development of the self was also stressed by Mead who wrote, "It is impossible to conceive of a self arising outside of social experience" (Mead, 1934).

Symonds, distinguishing between ego and self, defined the self as developing later than the ego and wrote that the ego:

. . . is an active process for developing and executing a plan of action for attaining satisfaction in response to inner drives. The self, on the other hand, refers to the body and mind and to bodily and mental processes as they are observed and reacted to by the individual (Symonds, 1951, p. 4).

LaBenne (1969) suggested that Symonds incorporated, "the psychoanalytic theory of Freud and the social philosophy of Mead" (LaBenne, 1969, p. 5).

In the last three decades theories of personality have been characterized either by, "the phenomenal and/or non phenomenal self-concept with cognitive and motivational attributes" (Wylie, 1961, p. 2). In light of the nature of this thesis the definition, measurement, development and relationship to adjustment of the phenomenal self-concept will be examined in specific reference to physical education and athletics.

The phenomenal self-concept had its beginnings in the writings of Leaky as he suggested,

Let us think of the individual, therefore, as a unified system with two sets of problems - one the problem of maintaining inner harmony within himself, and the other the problem of maintaining harmony with the environment, especially the social environment in the midst of which he lives. In order to understand the environment, he must keep his interpretation consistent with his experience, but in order to maintain his individuality, he must organize his interpretation to form a system which is internally consistent. This consistency is not objective, of course, but subjective and wholly individual (Leaky, 1945, pp. 84-85).

Snygg and Combs explained that the underlying assumption of phenomenological theory is that:

. . . the factors effective in determining the behavior of an individual are those, and only those, which are experienced by the individual at the time of his behavior (Snygg and Combs, 1949, p. 14).

Snygg and Combs perceived the phenomenal self as including

more than the physical aspects of self, ". . . but all those things we describe as 'me'" (Snygg and Combs, 1949, p. 57).

Specifically these authors define the self-concept as:

. . . those parts of the phenomenal field which the individual has differentiated as definite and fairly stable characteristics of himself (Snygg and Combs, 1949, p. 112).

Rogers has been the psychologist most frequently quoted and given credit for the development of the phenomenological self-concept theory, particularly in relation to his work in psychotherapy. The indigenous nature of self-concept to his self theory is implicit in Roger's definition of self,

The organized consistent conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the "I" or "me" and the perceptions of the relationship of the "I" or "me" to others and to various aspects of life, together with the values attached to these perceptions (Rogers, 1959, p. 200).

Roger's theoretical position which has sometimes been referred to as a theory of "self integration" can be best understood through the examination of one of the more important basic assumptions underlying his theory i.e.,

The organism has one basic tendency and striving - to actualize, maintain, and enhance the experiencing organism (Rogers, 1951, p. 487).

This assumption could be equated to a statement of motivation and reflects development of autonomy and the need for "self integration". This assumption was the basis for consequent research on adjustment of individuals.

It is important to note that Wylie, in a review of literature on the self-concept stated,

It is implicitly or explicitly assumed by all theorists that the self-concept is not entirely 'realistic,' and that lack of 'realism' may have psychodynamic significance and important behavioral consequences (Wylie, 1961, p. 5).

Measurement Instruments

It is apparent that phenomenological measurement of self-concept would differ from non-phenomenological measurement techniques as the phenomenologists emphasized the conscious self-concept as opposed to the non-phenomenologists who are concerned with the unconscious self-concept (Jersild, 1965, p. 205).

Several instruments have been employed to measure self-concept. Wylie has dicotomized these instruments as predominantly utilized by the phenomenologists or non-phenomenologists. The former included such measurement tools as "Q-sorts" (Wylie, 1961, p. 40), "Rating Scales, Questionnaires, Adjective Checklists" (Wylie, 1961, p. 65), and the latter were exemplified by, "TAT and other picture-judging and story-telling techniques, and Rorschach scores" (Wylie, 1961, p. 251).

Spitzer and Stratton (1966) examined the extent to which several of the more popular self-concept instruments can be considered equivalent measures of self-evaluation. College students completed the following four tests:

1. Bills' Index of Adjustment and Values (IAV)
2. Gough Adjective Checklist (ACL)
3. Fiedler's Semantic Differential Technique (FSD)
4. Kuhn's Twenty Statements Test (TST)
(Spitzer and Stratton, 1966, p. 268)

Each of the 242 subjects was also asked "Which of the measures allowed you to give the most accurate description of yourself?" (Spitzer and Stratton, 1966, p. 271). The authors found that the score from the TST, the single test with an open response format, had little in common with scores from other instruments and "that the instrument reported as most accurate is the ACL and the least accurate is the TST, although there is no majority opinion" (Spitzer and Stratton, 1966, p. 275). From these results they concluded that, "it may prove necessary to build in or control for individual differences in test taking attitudes" (Spitzer and Stratton, 1966, p. 280).

The Q-sort technique was developed by Stephenson (1953) and the self-concept statements utilized in the sorting for the most part have been either the ones developed by Butler and Haigh as reported in Rogers and Dymond (1954) or a revision of those items.

Q-sort methodology involved the sorting of items into a specific number of piles (usually nine) according to the degree which each statement characterized the subjects real-self or ideal-self (Butler and Haigh, 1954, p. 57).

Mower (1953) in his review of the Q-sort technique described it as:

. . . a flexible method for obtaining a qualitative description (or self-description) of the individual in a form for rigorous manipulation. The Q profile is halfway between the idiosyncratic, highly personalized sketch a

clinician might write, and the formal diagnostic profile from the Wechsler or some other test which "measure" the person on a limited number of scales. Second, the Q sort permits comparison of many different persons which coexist as feature of the same individual Third, correlation between persons provides a basis for studying the homogeneity of groups (Mower, 1953, p. 377).

Mower further suggested that the advantages to this technique were that it had greater penetration than the common questionnaire, and that, "the forced choice requires every person to put himself on the measuring scale in much the same manner" (Mower, 1953, p. 379).

Jones conducted a study of the Q-sort technique, specifically forced choice distribution which results in the placement of the items into a normal distribution. Jones administered the 100 item Butler and Haigh Q-sort to three groups: male college students, neurotic males, and psychotic males, however, he instructed the subjects to sort free-sort into nine piles. It was found that a quasi-normal distribution of items was not supported and Jones concluded that:

. . . current forced-distribution procedures result in a significant loss of information which may be retained by use of "free-sort" procedures of the type described here (Jones, 1956, p. 94).

Although Jones' criticisms are perhaps legitimate the advantages of statistical comparison between individuals are lost if his suggestion of free-sort are followed. In support of forced sort procedures Butler and Haigh wrote,

Psychophysical considerations lead one to expect that forcing a sort leads to finer differentiations than uncontrolled sorting, whereas forcing a nontied ranking of as many as one hundred items might lead to fatigue and carelessness (Butler and Haigh, 1954, p. 57).

Shlien (1962) in a discussion of the forced choice technique in his review of the literature concerning the self-concept suggested that:

. . . the technique is basically designed to be subjected to factor analysis using a correlation matrix of self-reports given by one person over many times or situations. (Shlien, 1962, p. 117).

In summation of this discussion on instruments Wylie wrote,

One final comment is in order concerning all the instruments which purport to tap self-regard directly. Each yield a global score which is obtained by summing across items. In no case has it been demonstrated, however, that the items within the instrument are comparable to one another with respect to their perceived salience for subjects self-regard or with respect to their psychological metrics (Wylie, 1961, p. 69).

Development and Adjustment

The development of the self involves "a process of differentiation" (Jerslid, 1965, p. 197), or in phenomenological terms - "the separation of the self from the field" (Snygg and Combs, 1949, p. 81). This differentiation is manifested between physical self and environment, persons and things, categories of people, and among individuals. There has been much support for the development of self-concept as a social product, as Mead's theory has suggested, regardless of the conscious or

unconscious nature of the self-concept.

Klausner reasoned that if the self-concept is developed through social action then individuals belonging to the same or similiar social groupings should have like self-concepts. He divided 106 seventeen year-old white males as to socio-economic class and administered a 60 item Q-sort. Klausner reported, " . . . that we do have modally different self-concepts between members of different socio-economic grouping " (Klausner, 1953, p. 205).

McPartland and Cumming (1958), (1961) concluded in studies of the self-concept as measured by the Twenty Statement Test using patients in state mental hospitals that, " . . . the self conception is, in at least one important way, an organization of social experience" (McPartland, 1958, p. 26).

Jerslid emphasized the influence of others on the self-concept and wrote, "As he is judged by others, he will tend to judge himself" (Jerslid, 1965, p. 203). Support for the importance of the significant other is apparent in Kipnis' study of male college students divided into groups of eight. A Personality Description Scale was utilized in a test-retest design and Kipnis reported as one result that the subjects changed their self-evaluations during the six-week time interval so that they perceived smaller differences between themselves and their best friends (Kipnis, 1961, p. 465).

In a study of dating behavior, support has been provided for the proposition that interpersonal success enhances a

favorable view of self; a favorable self-concept increases social participation; and social participation promotes further interpersonal success (Coombs, 1969).

As a result of the internalization of socially approved attitudes, ideals, and values, each individual develops a concept of an ideal self against which his own self-concept is evaluated. Indirectly, Murphy suggested this dicotomy in self structure as he wrote,

There are always at least two selves; a self observed with whatever degree of realism one can muster, and a self clearly or dimly glimpsed as something to be realized (Murphy, 1947, p. 539).

Butler and Haigh defined the ideal self as:

. . . the organized conceptual pattern of characteristics and emotional states which the individual consciously holds as desirable (and undesirable) for him (Butler and Haigh, 1954, p. 56).

The relationship between the ideal-self and the real-self utilizing a Q-sort technique has been operationally defined as a measure of self-concept by Rogers (1959) and has been suggested by him as indicating a degree of adjustment.

Brownfain conducted a study of 62 men's college cooperative houses utilizing a self rating inventory and Gilford Martin Inventory of Factors, GAMIN as a measure of personality. He reported that,

All findings support the theoretical prediction that subjects with stable self-concepts are better adjusted than those with unstable self-concepts (Brownfain, 1952, p. 606).

Dymond in 1953 utilizing an index of adjustment based on Q-sort technique reported that a group of persons presenting themselves for therapy were less well-adjusted, as measured against a criterion set up by expert clinicians, than a group who did not wish therapy.

Butler and Haigh supported Dymonds findings in a similar investigation and consequently concluded,

In our opinion the results discussed here indicate that low correlations between self and ideal are based on a low level of self-esteem related to a relatively low adjustment level (Butler and Haigh, 1954, p. 75).

Chodorkoff also investigated the hypothesis that greater correspondence between perceived self and the ideal self, the more adequate the individual's personal adjustment. Male undergraduates were subjects and their adequacy of adjustment was measured by a Biographical Inventory, Rorschach Test, and Thematic Apperception Test. A self Q-sort and a day later an ideal Q-sort were administered. Chodorkoff's results indicated that the least adequately adjusted individual did not show the least correspondence between perceived and ideal self, however, "as adequacy of adjustment decreased, correspondence between perceived and ideal self decreased too" (Chodorkoff, 1954, p. 268). Therefore he concluded a curvilinear relationship existed between adjustment and congruency between the real and ideal-self.

Hanlon (1954) offered additional support to the hypothesis

that adjustment may be related, however not curvilinearly, to self-ideal congruency. He tested 78 high school males utilizing a forced choice Q-sort and California Test of Personality. Hanlon's findings were inconsistent with Chodorkoff's as he reported,

The correlation between self-ideal congruence and total adjustment is positive and highly significant with regression being rectilinear (Hanlon, 1954, p. 217).

Differences in the age level of the subjects and/or personality tools used might have influenced the results.

Hess and Bradshaw examined the effects of age on the relationship of real-self to ideal-self. Self-concept was measured by the Adjective Check List devised by Gough and given to four groups of subjects: high school, college, middle-aged group, and late middle-aged group. The authors found the ideal-self significantly higher than real-self for all groups and that the oldest group had a significantly higher self and ideal than both adolescent groups. (Hess and Bradshaw, 1970, p. 66). This result seems to indicate that satisfaction with self improves with age, however, further studies need to be conducted along these lines before generalization can be made.

Relationship to Physical Education and Athletics

Physical educators have studied the self-concept predominantly in terms of its relationship to motor ability.

Doudlah investigated the relationship between the self-concept, the body image, and the movement concept of college

freshmen women with low and average motor ability as measured by the Scott Motor Ability Test. Statements for the self-concept test using Q-sort methodology were from Butler and Haigh as revised by Rogers. She developed her own movement concept statements which have been widely used in other studies. Doudlah found for the average motor ability group a relationship between self-concept : body image and body image : movement concept, no significant relationship between movement concept : self concept, and a significant relationship between motor ability : movement concept (Doudlah, 1962, pp. 31-35). In comparing the low and average motor ability groups Doudlah did not find any significant difference except on movement concept scores. This led Doudlah to conclude,

1. Movement has more meaning to the Average Motor Ability Group.
2. Perceiving oneself as a moving being is more characteristic of the Average Motor Ability Group than the Low Motor Ability Group.
(Doudlah, 1962, p. 42).

Parker (1961) used a different design than Doudlah in terms of dividing physical education major students and non-major students into three motor ability groups. The Twenty Statement Test was utilized to measure self-concept, and motor ability was measured by the Scott 3-Item Motor Ability Battery. Parker found no relationship between motor ability and self-concept.

Nelson (1965) revised the seventy-five Q-sort statements for self-concept used by Doudlah and investigated the relationship

between the self-concept and motor ability as measured by the Scott Motor Ability Battery. The 80 eighth grade girls were divided into low, average, and high motor ability groups, as they were in Parker's study, and sorted the Q-sort items before and after a seven week unit in basketball. Nelson concluded that motor ability scores of eighth grade girls are not related to self-concept scores and that there are no differences between motor ability groups in concepts of self.

It is evident after examining the above three studies that replication of each is necessary before any conclusions can be drawn in terms of an established reference to the relationship of self-concept and motor ability.

Changes in or relationship of self-concept to any variable in regard to athletes have not been extensively studied. Most research has focused on the personality structure of athletes as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory or various other popular personality tests.

The literature seems to be divided when athletes are separated in terms of skill. No differences in personality were found on the Cattell 16 P.F. Test when highly skilled and lower skilled groups of wrestlers (Kroll, 1967), karate participants (Kroll and Carlson, 1967), and swimmers (Parsons, 1963) were compared. However, differences have been reported by La Place (1954) and Schendel (1965).

La Place (1954) examined the relationship of personality to success in professional baseball. The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and a biographical data sheet were completed by a "success" group of 49 major league players and results compared to a "non-success" group of 64 minor league players. La Place found trait differences between groups and concluded that major league players appear better able to,

1. Apply their strong "drive" towards a definite objective by exercising self-discipline.
 2. Adjust to occupations as professional baseball, requiring social contact or the ability to get along well with other people.
 3. Exercise initiative.
- (La Place, 1954, p. 319).

The diverse findings reported in regard to differences between and among athletes and non athletes, along with the utilization of a variety of tools and varying age levels of subjects, lead Schendel to conduct a study in which he controlled for the assessment instrument employed and the educational level studied. Schendel administered the California Psychological Inventory to 334 ninth grade, twelfth grade, and college, athletes and non athletes. The athletes were further divided on the basis of coaches' ratings into substitute groups, regular groups, and outstanding athletes. Schendel reported,

Few differences exist in psychological characteristics between athletes rated as substitutes, regular players, or outstanding athletes. The differences which do exist

indicate that twelfth grade and college athletes with lower athletic ratings generally possess desirable personal-social psychological characteristics to a greater extent than athletes with a higher athletic rating. At the college level, athletes rated as substitutes generally possess psychological characteristics which are more like the characteristics of college nonparticipants in athletics than those of the athletes rated as regular players or outstanding athletes (Schendel, 1965, pp. 66-67).

This indicates that perhaps age and/or length of time participated, i.e. assuming that college athletes have probably engaged in competition for a greater number of years than ninth grade athletes, is a factor influencing a change in psychological characteristics of athletes from desirable to less desirable psychological characteristics.

In conclusion the writer has interpreted the literature to indicate that the self-concept is developed through interaction with the physical and social environments, and that it may be at or below an awareness level. Also, the literature supported the view that an ideal-self is an intricate part of the self-structure and a large discrepancy between real-self and ideal-self may be inversely related to adjustment.

Research in relation to the self-structure of athletes has been conducted only in terms of personality with consequent diverse findings in terms of differences between athletes in relation to skill level. Therefore, it seemed appropriate to examine changes in self-structure of athletes and difference between various skill levels of athletes.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURES

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of regular or substitute player status, as determined by basketball game playing time, on the self-concept and feelings of alienation of male high school basketball players. The relationship between alienation and self-concept was also explored.

SELECTION OF SUBJECTS

The subjects for this study were sixteen sophomores, eight juniors, and three seniors on The Smith High School, in Greensboro, North Carolina basketball team during the winter, 1970-1971. Fourteen subjects were on the junior varsity team and thirteen subjects were on the varsity team. The teams were interracially mixed.

DURATION AND GROUPING

The duration of this study was thirteen weeks. After the second pre-season game the subjects were given the initial self-concept and alienation tests. For the next twelve weeks the subjects played in sixteen basketball games. After the final season game the subjects were retested on self-concept

and alienation.

Throughout the season the playing time was recorded for each subject using a rating sheet consisting of columns designating the time entered the game and the time leaving the game for each quarter. The rows of the rating sheet were for entering the players' number. Each time a player entered the game the time indicated on the official score clock was recorded in the first column on the sheet. The time on the clock when the player left the floor was recorded in the second column. Total time played in the quarter was calculated by subtracting leaving from entering time. Playing time was calculated for each quarter and each players' total time for the entire game was tabulated and recorded in the last column. A copy of the rating sheet appears in the Appendix.

The rating sheet did not pose any difficulty for the timer in two games prior to its adoption for this study. All ratings were done by the writer except for three games. Procedures and background information were explained to an undergraduate major student in physical education at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, Miss Daphne Hall, who rated three games.

Fifteen games were considered in the totaling of playing time. Two games played before the tests of alienation and self-concept were given were not used. Data for one game was not obtained as a result of a rescheduling of one game without the

knowledge of the writer. Total playing time for each subject is shown in Table VI and appears in the Appendix.

Since the coach of the team did not wish to differentiate between regular and substitute players, it was necessary to determine an operational definition for regular and substitute. It was decided that total mean playing time for the group would provide a reasonable statistic around which to construct an operational definition.

Total mean playing time for all subjects was 174:05 minutes. On the criteria of less than the total mean team playing time fifteen subjects were placed in Group I and classified as substitutes. Individual player data indicating greater than the total mean team playing time resulted in the placement of eleven subjects in Group II and classified as regulars. One subject's total playing time was 174:38 minutes which was 33 seconds greater than the mean, however, the writer felt justified in placing the subject in the substitute group resulting in a total of sixteen subjects in Group I for the following reasons:

1. The subject was in terms of the range of scores 34 minutes away from the closest regular player and 1:47 minutes away from the closest substitute player after the division into groups.
2. As seen from an observation of Table VI, a natural break in times occurs between subjects numbered sixteen and seventeen.

3. It was felt that a discrepancy of 33 seconds greater than the mean when the total range was 427:22 minutes was not of sufficient importance to follow the strict arithmetic interpretation of mean score.

SELECTION AND ADMINISTRATION OF TESTS

Alienation Test

Dwight Dean's (1961) 24-item Alienation Scale which evaluates powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation was used as a measure of alienation. This scale can be subdivided into each of its component parts and utilizes the Likert scoring system.

Dean's scale was appropriate for this study because it clearly measured alienation from a society, it could be subdivided, it provided an objective score which was easy to correlate with measures of self concept, and it was easy to administer and score.

Dean's scale contains nine powerlessness, six normlessness, and nine social isolation items in statement form. The subjects were asked to check their degree of agreement with the statements on the following five-point scale: (A) Strongly Agree; (a) Agree; (U) Uncertain; (d) Disagree; (D) Strongly Disagree. The items were rotated into a questionnaire form and the questionnaire was entitled, "Public Opinion Questionnaire."

After consultation with the coach of the basketball team

it was the writer's decision to add clarification phrases to three items. The original statement and the additions in parentheses follows:

4. The end often justifies the means. (It doesn't matter how you do something as long as the result is what you want.)
21. We are just so many cogs in the machinery of life. (Life goes on regardless of what people do.)
23. The future looks very dismal (depressing, gloomy.)

The questionnaire was typed on dittos and sufficient copies for both initial and final administration of the test were made. A keyed copy of the scale appears in the Appendix.

The alienation scale was given in one testing session and two days later the self-concept Q-sort was administered. The subjects were not asked for their names; instead a number code was utilized.

Scoring of the Alienation Test

The keyed copy of the alienation scale was obtained through correspondence with Dean. Each item of the scale on the keyed copy listed the numerical value of the five choices of response in either an ascending or descending order, from 0-4 and 4-0 respectively.

Each item was scored by this writer along the right-hand side of the test directly opposite the item. The tabulation of all the items represented the total alienation score for a subject. A numerically high total score indicated greater

alienation than a low numerical total.

Each item on the test belonged to one of three sub-scales, powerlessness, normlessness, or social isolation. A stencil was cut from a manila folder for each sub-scale. Each subjects' test was then scored for each of the three sub-scales by adding the scores for those items not blocked out by the stencil. Raw alienation scores and sub-scale scores appear in the Appendix in Tables VII, VIII, IX, and X.

Self-Concept Test

Doudlah's (1962) seventy-five Self-Concept statements adapted from Rogers and Dymond (1954) were administered by utilizing the Q-sort Technique, as described by Stephenson (1953). A copy of Doudlah's statements appears in the Appendix.

The Q-sort was appropriate for this study because it allowed the subject to interpret the test items, it provided an objective score which could be correlated to alienation measures, it clearly measured the correlation between the self and ideal self, it was used successfully by other physical educators and it was easy to administer and score.

Q-sort methodology involves the sorting of a set of statements, typed on cards, according to the degree to which each statement characterizes the subjects' real-self and ideal-self. The subject sorts the cards into a predetermined number of piles based on the normal curve.

Since it was the purpose of this study to investigate a subjects perceived self and how he would ideally like to be,

it was necessary to have the subject complete two sorts prior to and after the regular basketball season, a self-sort and ideal-sort. All testing was supervised by the investigator.

Subjects were tested four at a time in a conference room which provided ample space to work and a quiet atmosphere. Each subject was provided with a sheet of directions, an envelope containing self-sort statements, and a recording sheet for self-sort. After completing the self-sort the subject was given a sheet of directions, statements, and recording sheet for the ideal-sort. All material was color coded with green indicating the self-sort material and yellow indicating the ideal-sort material.

Each subject was seated in front of a white rectangular cardboard nineteen inches by twenty-two inches. Column headings, one through nine were printed in black. Black rectangles one by two inches were drawn below each column heading in correspondence with the appropriate predetermined number of statements to be placed in that column. A small piece of Plastic-stick was placed in the middle of each rectangle to facilitate the placement of the cards on the board in the sorting procedure.

The seventy-five Self-Concept statements were typed, numbered, and mimeographed on green (self-sort), and yellow (ideal-sort) paper and cut to the size of one inch by two inches.

Each subject was directed to sort the statements first into three piles, "least like", "inbetween", and "most like". The subject was then to place the two statements that were the "least like" him in the first pile under column number one on the Q-sort board. The subject then placed the next five statements that were "least like" him under column number two. He continued until he completed the following sorting distribution:

<u>Least Like</u>			<u>Inbetween</u>				<u>Most Like</u>	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
(2)	(2)
	(5)	(5)	
		(9)	.	.	.	(9)		
			(13)	.	(13)			
				(17)				

(Number of statements in
Parentheses)

The green and yellow Q-sort direction sheets were identical with the exception of the first direction. The green sheet (self-sort) directed the subject to sort the statements "from the point of view of how you see yourself at this exact moment in time." The yellow direction sheet (ideal-sort) directed the subject to sort the statements "from the point of view of how you would ideally like to be." A copy of both direction sheets appear in the Appendix.

Recording sheets were exact duplications of the Q-sort board, however printed on 8½ by 11 paper. Each subject was directed to record the number of each statement that he had placed in each column on the recording sheet. This was done

on a green recording sheet for self-sort and a yellow recording sheet for the ideal-sort. A pencil was provided for this task. A copy of the recording sheet appears in the Appendix.

Scoring of the Q-sort

A nomograph may be used in Q-sort methodology to determine the correlation coefficients between self-sort and ideal-sort. Doudlah (1962) constructed a nomograph for a nine-point scale of seventy-five statements. Her nomograph was utilized by this writer and a copy appears in the Appendix.

To facilitate the computation of the Self-Concept scores for each subject a tabulation sheet was utilized by this writer. It consisted of eleven columns and seventy-five rows numbered down the side of the paper. The columns were numbered one through nine and the remaining two columns were titled "D", "D²" representing the difference between the self-sort and ideal-sort, and the difference squared, respectively. The "D²" column was then summed. A copy of this sheet, prepared by Dr. Rosemary McGee, appears in the Appendix.

The correlation coefficients were then read by entering the nomograph either from the left or the right, depending on the numeric value of "D²". For any sum of "D²" from 0 to 511 the nomograph was entered from the left at the "D²" value, and the correlation coefficient was then read from the bottom (Positive) scale by proceeding to the diagonal line and dropping a perpendicular line down to the bottom scale. For any sum of "D²" from 511 to 1022 the nomograph was entered from the right

and the correlation was read from the top (negative) scale.
A copy of the correlation coefficients for the substitutes and
regular groups appears in the Appendix in Tables XI and XII.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

It was the purpose of this study to investigate the effect of regular or substitute player status, as determined by game playing time, on self-concept and alienation of basketball players. The relationship between alienation and self-concept was also explored.

The subjects for this study were twenty-seven male high school basketball players who were members of the varsity and junior varsity team at Smith High School in Greensboro, North Carolina. The data was collected between November and February, 1970-1971.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The twenty-seven subjects completed Dean's (1961) Alienation Test and Q-sorts of Doudlah's (1962) Self-Concept Statements prior to and following the twelve week basketball season. Scores for the self-concept were computed by measuring correlation coefficients between the self-sort and ideal-sort. Total alienation scores and sub-scale scores for powerlessness, social isolation, and normlessness were tabulated for the alienation measure.

Data were organized into two groups: Group I, substitute players; Group II, regular players. Mean game playing time

of the basketball squad was used as the criterion for placement of the subject into either of the two groups. Greater than the mean team playing time resulted in the placement of the subject into Group II, regular players. If the player's total playing time was less than the mean he was designated as a "substitute player" and put in Group I. Raw grouped data are presented in Tables VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, and XII in the Appendix.

Null hypotheses were formulated concerning differences between groups with regard to the self-concept and alienation variables. It was determined that the 5 per cent level of confidence was an appropriate standard of statistical significance at which to find the hypotheses untenable.

The following null hypotheses concerning the self-concept were tested:

1. There is no significant difference between the self-concept scores prior to and after a twelve week basketball season for the following groups:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad
2. There is no significant difference with regard to self-concept between the regulars and the substitutes prior to a twelve week basketball season.
3. There is no significant difference with regard to self-concept between the regulars and the substitutes after a twelve week basketball season.

The computation of the analysis of variance for the self-concept scores, depicted in Table I, revealed that the F ratio obtained was not significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Therefore all of the above null hypotheses were found tenable.

TABLE I

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF CHANGE IN SELF-CONCEPT FROM
INITIAL TO FINAL TEST FOR TWO GROUPS OF SUBJECTS

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F
Between tests	0.000	1	0.000	0.012
Between groups	0.004	1	0.004	0.155
Interaction	0.009	1	0.009	0.343
Within	1.372	50	0.027	0.165

The following null hypotheses concerning the alienation variable were tested:

4. There is no significant difference between the alienation scores prior to and after a twelve week basketball season for the following groups:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad

5. There is no significant difference with regard to alienation scores between the regulars and the substitutes prior to a twelve week basketball season.
6. There is no significant difference with regard to alienation scores between the regulars and the substitutes after a twelve week basketball season.

The computation of the analysis of variance for the alienation scores, reported in Table II, revealed that the F ratio obtained was not significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Therefore all of the above null hypotheses were also found tenable.

TABLE II
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF CHANGE IN ALIENATION FROM
INITIAL TO FINAL TEST FOR TWO GROUPS OF SUBJECTS

Source of variation	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F
Between tests	204.465	1	204.465	2.116
Between groups	0.430	1	0.430	0.004
Interaction	32.761	1	32.761	0.339
Within	4830.511	50	96.610	9.82

The following null hypotheses regarding the relationship between self-concept scores and alienation scores were tested:

7. There is no relationship between self-concept and alienation scores of the following groups on the initial tests:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad
8. There is no relationship between self-concept and alienation scores of the following groups on the final tests:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad

The computation of the correlation coefficient for the relationship between self-concept scores and alienation scores, reported in Table III, revealed that the "r" was not significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Therefore, the above null hypotheses were found tenable.

TABLE III
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND
TOTAL ALIENATION SCORES ON INITIAL AND FINAL TESTS

	N	Substitutes	N	Regulars	N	Total
Initial test	16	-.2563	11	-.5211	27	-.3188
Final test	16	-.3281	11	-.4237	27	-.3581

The following null hypotheses regarding the significance of difference with regard to the relationship of self-concept and alienation scores between substitutes and regular groups were tested:

9. There is no significant difference between the substitute and regular group in the relationship of self-concept to alienation on the initial test.
10. There is no significant difference between the substitute and regular group in the relationship of self-concept to alienation on the final test.

The computation of the significance of difference between the substitute and regular group in the relationship of self-concept and alienation scores utilizing the "Z" Transformation reported in Table IV, revealed that the "z" coefficient obtained was not significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence for both the initial and final tests. Therefore the above null hypotheses were found tenable.

TABLE IV

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
OF SELF-CONCEPT AND ALIENATION BETWEEN
SUBSTITUTE AND REGULAR PLAYERS

	N	Substitute Player Self-Concept and Alienation	N	Regular Player Self-Concept and Alienation	z
		r		r	
Initial test	16	-.2563	11	-.5211	.755
Final test	16	-.3281	11	-.4237	.272

The following null hypotheses regarding the relationship of self-concept to the three sub-scales of Dean's (1961) Alienation Test, powerlessness, normlessness, social isolation, were tested:

11. There is no relationship between self-concept scores and the powerlessness sub-scale of the alienation test on the initial and final tests for all subjects.
12. There is no relationship between self-concept scores and the social isolation sub-scale of the alienation test on the initial and final tests for all subjects.
13. There is no relationship between self-concept scores and the normlessness sub-scale of the alienation test on the initial and final tests for all subjects.

The computation of the correlation coefficient for the relationship between self-concept scores and alienation sub-scale scores, reported in Table V, revealed that the powerlessness sub-scale correlated significantly at the 5 per cent level of confidence with self-concept scores on both the initial and final tests. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between self-concept and powerlessness scores on both the initial and final tests was found untenable at the 5 per cent level of confidence. The social isolation sub-scale was not found to be correlated with self-concept scores on either the initial or final tests. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between self-concept scores and the social isolation sub-scale was found tenable. The

normlessness sub-scale was found to be significantly correlated at the 5 per cent level of confidence with self-concept scores only on the final test. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between self-concept and normlessness scores was found tenable for the initial test and was found untenable for the final test at the 5 per cent level of confidence.

TABLE V
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN SELF-CONCEPT AND
ALIENATION SUB-SCALES

	Initial test		Final test	
	N	r	N	r
Powerlessness	27	-.5498*	27	-.4798*
Social Isolation	27	+.0856	27	+.2983
Normlessness	27	-.1313	27	-.5399*

*Significant at .05 level of confidence.

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Analysis of variance revealed no significant difference between the initial and final self-concept and alienation scores for the substitute and regular groups. These results support the conclusion that after twelve weeks of competitive basketball the subjects' concept of themselves and their feelings of alienation did not change. These results imply that either

twelve weeks is not a sufficient time to effect change or that these two variables are not subject to change as a result of the subjects' participation on a competitive basketball team. Similar findings in terms of the self-concept variable were reported after a unit in basketball by Nelson (1965).

Analysis of variance also revealed no significant difference between substitutes and regulars on either the initial or final tests of self-concept and alienation. These results support the conclusion that athletes when divided into substitute and regular groups may not have different concepts of themselves or different feelings of alienation either before or after a basketball season. From this interpretation, it may be assumed that athletes regardless of player status on a team came from a homogenous population, and were not affected by the basketball variable with reference to change in self-concept or alienation. These results indicate limited support for the findings of Kroll (1967), Kroll and Carlson (1967), and Parsons (1963) who found no differences in personality between highly skilled and lower skilled groups of wrestlers, karate participants and swimmers when compared on the Cattell 16 Personality Factors.

All correlation coefficients between self-concept and total alienation scores were negative although not significant at the 5 per cent level of acceptance. A negative relationship between the two variables indicated that subjects who

were highly alienated also tended to have a large discrepancy between their real-self and ideal-self, and subjects who reported low alienation tended to have a small discrepancy between their real-self and ideal-self. The relationship is negative because a small discrepancy between real-self and ideal-self resulted in a numerically high correlation coefficient.

The negative direction of the correlation coefficients between self-concept and total alienation scores lends support to David's conclusion that, "Individuals who are high on alienation showed a greater discrepancy between themselves and the apperceived average person and between themselves and their ideal person than did individuals who are low on alienation" (David, 1955, p. 27). Numerous research studies have also indicated that a large discrepancy between real-self and ideal-self is negatively correlated with personality adjustment (Hanlon, 1950), (Brownfain, 1952), (Chodorkoff, 1954), (Dymond, 1953), and (Butler and Haigh, 1954). In light of this research, this writer's findings might be interpreted to offer support for the conclusion that alienation may also be negatively related to adjustment.

Because the data indicated an observable change between the substitute and regular group in the relationship of self-concept to alienation on the initial test, Fisher's "Z" Transformation for significance of difference between correlation coefficients was utilized. Although no significant difference

in correlation scores between groups was found, the regulars as a group tended to approach significance to a greater degree than the substitute group.

The empirical literature has indicated that alienation is both unidimensional and multidimensional (Marx, 1961), and (Seeman, 1959). The data, consequently, was further examined to determine the relationship between self-concept and the various sub-scales of alienation. Correlation coefficients between self-concept and each sub-scale of the alienation test resulted in observable differences in relationship between each sub-scale. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest support for the multidimensional point of view based on the limiting factors of the assumption that alienation is defined as powerlessness, social isolation, and normlessness.

Specific findings based on the examination of the relationship of the sub-scales to self-concept scores indicated that powerlessness was significantly correlated with self-concept scores on both the initial and final test for all subjects. This result is concurrent with much of the research findings suggesting that powerlessness is one of the most important contributors to the alienation syndrome (Gamson, 1961), (Seeman, 1962), (Neal and Seeman, 1964), and (Dean, 1960).

In conclusion, this study revealed comparable effects of substitute and regular player status on the self-concept and feelings of alienation of male high school basketball players. There tended to be an inverse relationship between alienation

scores and correlation coefficients between real-self and ideal-self. Such conclusions suggest that the delineation of player status along the lines of substitutes and regulars is not a meaningful variable in respect to changes in self-concept or alienation.

CRITIQUE

The data for this study is limited in its application and should be interpreted in terms of the following limitations governing the research design:

1. The subjects represented a selected sample of basketball players.
2. The team was selectively chosen with skill in basketball being the major criterion in selection.
3. Both instruments utilized were based on self-report and were not specific in their application to a team situation.
4. No control was attempted for race, socio-economic level, religion, effect of winning or losing, peer status, family membership, and other psycho-social factors which the literature suggests may bear on alienation and self-concept.
5. Three items of Dean's Alienation Scale were revised i.e. explanatory words were added.

In light of the above limitations the following suggestions for further investigation are suggested:

1. A repetition of the present study utilizing several randomly selected winning and losing teams which would allow for the placement of substitutes and regulars into groups delineated in terms of race, socio-economic level and religion which the literature suggests may be crucial variables (Lefcourt, 1965), (Neal and Seeman, 1964), and (Dean and Reeves, 1962).
2. A replication of this study with the above suggestions and the addition of groups of subjects representing divergent sports, age levels, skill levels, sex, and countries.
3. The development of an instrument evaluating alienation from a team.
4. A longitudinal study of the effects of substitute and regular status on the self-concept and alienation of participants.
5. An examination of substitutes, in terms of self-concept and alienation, who play as opposed to substitutes who never play.
6. Validation of the revised alienation test utilized in this study.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of regular or substitute player status, as determined by basketball game playing time, on the self-concept and feelings of alienation of male high school basketball players. The relationship between alienation and self-concept was also examined.

The subjects for this study were twenty-seven male athletes attending The Smith High School, in Greensboro, North Carolina, during the winter of 1970-1971. Fourteen subjects were on the junior varsity team and thirteen subjects were on the varsity team. The teams were interracially mixed. The subjects were divided into two groups: Group I, substitute players; Group II, regular players, on the basis of lesser or greater total mean team playing time of the basketball squad.

Dwight Dean's (1961) Alienation Scale which evaluates powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation was used as a measure of alienation. This scale can be subdivided into each of its component parts and utilizes the Likert scoring system. Dean's scale was appropriate for this study because it clearly measured alienation from a society, it could be subdivided, and as an objective measure it was easy to correlate with measures of self-concept.

Doudlah's (1962) seventy-five Self-Concept Statements adapted from Rogers and Dymond (1954) were administered by utilizing the Q-sort technique. It was selected as the tool most appropriate for this study because it allowed the subject to interpret the test items on an individual basis, it provided an objective score which could be correlated to alienation measures, and it clearly measured the correlation between the real-self and ideal-self.

After the second pre-season game the subjects completed two Q-sorts indicating their real-self-concept and ideal-self-concept, and the alienation test. After the basketball season of twelve weeks the final Q-sortings and alienation test were completed. Individual correlation coefficients between the real-self and ideal-self for both the first and second testing were calculated by utilizing a devised nomograph.

The data were treated statistically to determine if a change in self-concept or feelings of alienation occurred within the substitute and regular groups from the beginning of the season to the end, to determine if the two groups were different either prior to or after the season, to determine the relationship between self-concept and alienation for all subjects as well as for each group, to determine if the relationship of self-concept to alienation was significantly different for the two groups, and to determine the relationship of the various dimensions of alienation, powerlessness, normlessness, and social isolation to self-concept.

Null hypotheses were formulated regarding differences between and within groups and the relationship of the two variables. Analysis of variance and Fisher's "Z" Transformation for the significance of difference between correlation coefficients were the statistical methods used.

The following results were obtained:

1. There was no significant difference between the self-concept scores prior to and after a twelve week basketball season for the following groups:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad
2. There was no significant difference with regard to self-concept between the regulars and the substitutes prior to a twelve week basketball season.
3. There was no significant difference with regard to self-concept between the regulars and the substitutes after a twelve week basketball season.
4. There was no significant difference between the alienation scores prior to and after a twelve week basketball season for the following groups:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad
5. There was no significant difference with regard to alienation scores between the regulars and the substitutes prior to a twelve week basketball season.

6. There was no significant difference with regard to alienation scores between the regulars and the substitutes after a twelve week basketball season.
7. There was no statistically significant relationship between self-concept and alienation scores of the following groups on the initial tests:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad
8. There was no statistically significant relationship between self-concept and alienation scores of the following groups on the final tests:
 - a. Substitutes
 - b. Regulars
 - c. Total Basketball Squad
9. There was no significant difference between the substitutes and regular group in the relationship of self-concept to alienation on the initial test.
10. There was no significant difference between the substitute and regular group in the relationship of self-concept to alienation on the final test.
11. There was a statistically significant relationship between self-concept scores and the powerlessness sub-scale of the alienation test on the initial and final testing for all subjects.
12. There was no statistically significant relationship between self-concept scores and the social isolation sub-scale of the alienation test on the initial and

final testing for all subjects.

13. There was no statistically significant relationship between self-concept scores and the normlessness sub-scale of the alienation test on the initial test, however, there was a statistically significant relationship on the final test for all subjects.

On the basis of the above statistical results the following conclusions were inferred:

1. After twelve weeks of competitive basketball, male high school subjects' concept of themselves and their feelings of alienation did not change.
2. Male basketball players when divided into substitute and regular groups appear not to differ either in self-concept or feelings of alienation.
3. A large discrepancy between real-self and ideal-self tended to be related to high alienation scores and a small discrepancy between real-self and ideal-self tended to be related to low alienation scores.
4. The relationship of self-concept to alienation was not different for the substitute group as opposed to the regular group.
5. The regulars as a group tended to approach a significantly negative relationship between self-concept and alienation to a greater extent than the substitute group.

6. Observable difference of no statistical significance was noted between the relationship of each sub-scale of the alienation test and self-concept scores.
7. Powerlessness was one of the more important contributors to the relationship of alienation and self-concept scores.
8. In conclusion, it was found that the delineation of player status along the lines of substitute and regular was not a meaningful variable in terms of effecting change in either self-concept or alienation.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
Playing Time Rating Sheet

Date _____

Rater _____

[illegible]

TABLE VI
TOTAL PLAYING TIME IN MINUTES
FOR A BASKETBALL SEASON
(FIFTEEN GAMES)

Subject number	Time in Minutes
1	4:35
2	4:35
3	22:55
4	23:15
5	24:25
6	27:57
7	28:23
8	29:30
9	30:00
10	30:35
11	30:55
12	120:15
13	151:51
14	160:35
15	170:51
16	174:30
17	200:27
18	252:30
19	262:14

APPENDIX B

Total Playing Time In Minutes
For a Basketball Season
(Fifteen Games)

TABLE VI
TOTAL PLAYING TIME IN MINUTES
FOR A BASKETBALL SEASON
(FIFTEEN GAMES)

Subject number	Time in Minutes
1	4:48
2	8:29
3	22:58
4	23:16
5	29:33
6	37:57
7	51:13
8	65:34
9	80:40
10	90:13
11	90:51
12	130:10
13	151:51
14	164:36
15	172:51
16	174:38
17	209:27
18	231:39
19	242:12

TABLE VI--Continued

Subject number	Time in Minutes
20	265:02
21	278:05
22	291:26
23	326:25
24	342:12
25	365:48
26	413:38
27	433:10

PUBLIC OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

Below are some statements regarding public issues, with which some people agree and others disagree. Please give us your own opinion about these items, i.e., whether you agree or disagree with the items as they stand.

Please check in the appropriate block, as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1. Strongly Agree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2. Agree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3. Uncertain |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4. Disagree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. Strongly Disagree |

APPENDIX C

Alienation Test

1. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
2. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
3. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
4. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
5. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
6. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
7. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
8. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
9. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
10. I feel that I am not a part of the community.
11. I feel that I am not a part of the community.

PUBLIC OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

Below are some statements regarding public issues, with which some people agree and others disagree. Please give us your own opinion about these items, i.e., whether you agree or disagree with the items as they stand.

Please check in the appropriate blank, as follows:

 A (Strongly Agree)
 a (Agree)
 U (Uncertain)
 d (Disagree)
 D (Strongly Disagree)

1. Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.

_A _a _U _d _D
2. I worry about the future facing today's children.

_A _a _U _d _D
3. I don't get invited out by friends as often as I'd really like.

_A _a _U _d _D
4. The end often justifies the means. (It doesn't matter how you do something as long as the result is what you want.)

_A _a _U _d _D
5. Most people today seldom feel lonely.

_A _a _U _d _D
6. Sometimes I have the feeling that other people are using me.

_A _a _U _d _D
7. People's ideas change so much that I wonder if we'll ever have anything to depend on.

_A _a _U _d _D
8. Real friends are as easy as ever to find.

_A _a _U _d _D
9. It is frightening to be responsible for the development of a little child.

_A _a _U _d _D
10. Everything is relative, and there just aren't any definite rules to live by.

_A _a _U _d _D
11. One can always find friends if he shows himself friendly.

_A _a _U _d _D

PUBLIC OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE--Continued

12. I often wonder what the meaning of life really is.
 __A __a __U __d __D
13. There is little or nothing I can do towards preventing
 a major "shooting" war. __A __a __U __d __D
14. The world in which we live is basically a friendly place.
 __A __a __U __d __D
15. There are so many decisions that have to be made today
 that sometimes I could just "blow up".
 __A __a __U __d __D
16. The only thing one can be sure of today is that he can
 be sure of nothing. __A __a __U __d __D
17. There are few dependable ties between people any more.
 __A __a __U __d __D
18. There is little chance for promotion on the job unless
 a man gets a break. __A __a __U __d __D
19. With so many religions abroad, one doesn't really know
 which to believe. __A __a __U __d __D
20. We're so regimented today that there's not much room for
 choice even in personal matters.
 __A __a __U __d __D
21. We are just so many cogs in the machinery of life.
 (Life goes on regardless of what people do.)
 __A __a __U __d __D
22. People are just naturally friendly and helpful.
 __A __a __U __d __D
23. The future looks very dismal (depressing, gloomy).
 __A __a __U __d __D
24. I don't get to visit friends as often as I'd like.
 __A __a __U __d __D

TABLE VII
TOTAL ALIENATION SCORES
FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
(SUBSTITUTE PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Initial Testing	Final Testing
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1	42	50
---	----	----

2	34	34
---	----	----

3	35	38
---	----	----

4	34	34
---	----	----

5	34	34
---	----	----

6	34	34
---	----	----

7	34	34
---	----	----

8	34	34
---	----	----

9	34	34
---	----	----

10	34	34
----	----	----

11	34	34
----	----	----

12	34	34
----	----	----

13	34	34
----	----	----

14	34	34
----	----	----

15	34	34
----	----	----

16	34	34
----	----	----

TABLE VII
TOTAL ALIENATION SCORES
FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
(SUBSTITUTE PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Initial Testing	Final Testing
1	42	40
2	34	34
3	45	30
4	41	36
5	49	58
6	38	36
7	52	39
8	60	48
9	40	53
10	44	49
11	57	62
12	60	49
13	54	47
14	47	47
15	35	24
16	49	55

TABLE VIII
 TOTAL ALIENATION SCORES
 FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
 (REGULAR PLAYERS)

Subject Index	Initial Testing	Final Testing
1	42	50
2	45	46
3	46	43
4	40	47
5	41	37
6	42	40
7	37	37
8	39	36
9	44	41
10	38	44
11	40	38
12	40	38
13	40	38
14	40	38
15	40	38
16	40	38
17	40	38
18	40	38
19	40	38
20	40	38
21	40	38
22	40	38
23	40	38
24	40	38
25	40	38
26	40	38
27	40	38
28	40	38
29	40	38
30	40	38
31	40	38
32	40	38
33	40	38
34	40	38
35	40	38
36	40	38
37	40	38
38	40	38
39	40	38
40	40	38
41	40	38
42	40	38
43	40	38
44	40	38
45	40	38
46	40	38
47	40	38
48	40	38
49	40	38
50	40	38

APPENDIX E

Total Alienation Scores for
 Initial and Final Testing
 (Regular Players)

TABLE VIII
TOTAL ALIENATION SCORES
FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
(REGULAR PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Initial Testing	Final Testing
17	42	50
18	45	36
19	46	42
20	51	47
21	51	37
22	72	60
23	37	32
24	39	30
25	66	51
26	36	44
27	44	39

TABLE IX
 ALIENATION SUB-SCALE SCORES
 FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
 (SUBSTITUTE PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Powerlessness		Isolation		Marginalization	
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	10	21	16	12	5	15
2	16	15	13	12	5	7
3	17	9	20	15	8	6
4	15	14	19	15	7	7
5	25					17
6	14				8	7
7	21	15	22	12	9	5
8	23	17	25	15	13	10
9	14	18	22	20	5	7
10	18	19	18	21	4	14
11	20	20	19	14	14	17
12	22	22	22	15	15	11
13	25	18	15	14	14	11
14	14	13	20	20	14	9
15	14	13	8	7	7	4
16	14	20	24	17	12	15

APPENDIX F

Alienation Sub-scale Scores for
 Initial and Final Testing
 (Substitute Players)

TABLE IX
 ALIENATION SUB-SCALE SCORES
 FOR INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
 (SUBSTITUTE PLAYERS)

Subject Number	<u>Powerlessness</u>		<u>Isolation</u>		<u>Normlessness</u>	
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	18	21	16	12	8	16
2	16	15	13	12	5	7
3	17	9	20	15	8	6
4	15	14	19	15	7	7
5	25	24	13	17	11	17
6	14	14	16	15	8	7
7	21	16	22	18	9	5
8	23	17	24	15	13	16
9	14	18	21	28	5	7
10	18	17	18	21	8	11
11	20	29	19	16	18	17
12	22	19	22	15	16	15
13	25	20	15	16	14	11
14	16	13	20	25	11	9
15	19	13	7	7	9	4
16	18	20	19	19	12	16

TABLE X
 ALIENATION SUB-SCALE SCORES FOR
 INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
 (REGULAR PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Powerlessness		Isolation		Marginalization	
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
1	17	22	13	13	7	13
2	15	14	21	17	8	5
3	17	18	15	12	15	13
4	14	13	24	14	14	10
5	20	20	10	10	10	12
6	22	20	20	20	20	20
7	10	10	12	10	5	4
8	17	11	18	10	6	4
9	23	19	22	14	15	13
10	22	20	17	14	7	7
11	17	13	27	14	10	8

APPENDIX G

Alienation Sub-scale Scores for
 Initial and Final Testing
 (Regular Players)

TABLE X
ALIENATION SUB-SCALE SCORES FOR
INITIAL AND FINAL TESTING
(REGULAR PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Powerlessness		Isolation		Normlessness	
	Initial	Final	Initial	Final	Initial	Final
17	17	22	18	13	7	15
18	16	14	21	17	8	5
19	16	18	15	12	15	12
20	14	13	23	24	14	10
21	20	14	17	11	14	12
22	28	31	24	9	20	20
23	16	10	13	18	8	4
24	17	11	18	10	4	9
25	29	19	22	19	15	13
26	12	18	17	19	7	7
27	17	13	17	18	10	8

SELF-CONCEPT Q-SORT STATEMENTS

1. I express my emotions freely.
2. Most of my troubles are not my own fault.
3. I feel happy much of the time.
4. I feel secure within myself.
5. It's quite important for me to know how I seem to others.
6. I put on a false front.
7. I often feel that I want to give up trying to cope with the world.
8. I have confidence in myself.
9. I am kept going by hopes for the future.
10. I have courage--the willingness to keep trying.
11. I usually like people.
12. I am a nervous, sensitive person.
13. I am full of life and good spirit.
14. I feel free and unhampered.
15. I am scared up for my own future.
16. My decisions are not controlled by others.
17. I am liked by many people.
18. I have some originality or inventiveness in me.
19. I don't make myself as satisfied as I would like to be.
20. I have initiative. I can get started on my own.
21. I'm not sure I'm not just a keep going.
22. If I can't have something, I won't want anything. Nothing is between will satisfy me.
23. I am shy.
24. Basically I like myself.
25. I am no one. I am a person in my own right.
26. I am not a person who is always happy.
27. My energies and abilities are fully available to me.
28. I am intelligent.
29. I have a feeling I'm just not facing things.
30. I am different from others.
31. I forgive easily--don't hold grudges or try to "get even".
32. I tend to feel sorry for other people's bad fortune.
33. I have to protect myself with caution, with rationalizing.
34. I am satisfied with myself.
35. I am worth being loved.
36. I think I'm a really good test of myself.
37. I understand myself.
38. I have a feeling of responsibility.
39. I often feel resentful.
40. I feel lonely.
41. I am discouraged.
42. I am too much the result of past experience to hope for much change.

APPENDIX H

Self-Concept Q-Sort Statements

SELF-CONCEPT
Q-SORT STATEMENTS

1. I express my emotions freely.
2. Most of my troubles are not my own fault.
3. I feel happy much of the time.
4. I feel secure within myself.
5. It's quite important for me to know how I seem to others.
6. I put on a false front.
7. I often feel that I want to give up trying to cope with the world.
8. I have confidence in myself.
9. I am kept going by hopes for the future.
10. I have courage--the willingness to keep trying.
11. I usually like people.
12. I am a strong, competent person.
13. I am full of life and good spirits.
14. I feel free and unhampered.
15. I can stand up for my rights if I need to.
16. My decisions are not my own. I feel controlled by others.
17. I am liked by most people who know me.
18. I am ashamed of myself.
19. I have some originality or inventiveness in me.
20. I don't remake myself to satisfy each person who is important to me.
21. I have initiative. I can get started on my own.
22. It takes everything I've got just to keep going.
23. If I can't have perfection, I don't want anything. Nothing in between will satisfy me.
24. I am shy.
25. Basically I like myself.
26. I am no one. I am not a person in my own right.
27. I am fearful, often dreading what may happen.
28. My energies and abilities are fully available to me.
29. I am intelligent.
30. I have a feeling I'm just not facing things.
31. I am different from others.
32. I forgive easily--don't hold grudges or try to "get even".
33. I tend to feel envy at other people's good fortune.
34. I have to protect myself with excuses, with rationalizing.
35. I am satisfied with myself.
36. I am worth being loved.
37. I shrink from facing a crisis or a real hard test of myself.
38. I understand myself.
39. I have a feeling of hopelessness.
40. I often feel resentful.
41. I feel helpless.
42. I am disorganized.
43. I am too much the result of past experiences to hope for much change.

44. I feel inferior.
45. I am a failure.
46. I am emotionally mature.
47. I am confused.
48. I am optimistic.
49. I am pretty sociable, and really enjoy being with people.
50. I get pleasure out of life.
51. I am critical of people.
52. I am superior to most other people.
53. I get upset when old and familiar things are changed.
54. I'm a pretty calm and relaxed person. Few things really bother me.
55. I generally am fortunate.
56. I am really self-centered--don't care much about other people.
57. It is pretty hard to really be myself.
58. I am usually an aloof, reserved person.
59. I do care for others and want them to be happy.
60. I am an angry, hostile person.
61. I live largely by other people's values and standards.
62. I really am disturbed--close to the breaking point.
63. I often feel guilty.
64. I trust my emotions.
65. I am kind and gentle.
66. I have warm emotional relationships with others.
67. I just have to drive myself to get things done.
68. I am a submissive person.
69. I feel able to make up my own mind and stick to it if I want to.
70. I am adaptable. A strange situation is not a crisis to me.
71. I just wish I could be someone else, and forget all about me.
72. I just can't tell anyone my real feelings.
73. I feel adequate.
74. I am a pretty stable person.
75. I am conscientious and honorable--can be depended upon.

- ## APPENDIX I

DIRECTIONS
(Self-Sort)

1. Sort the seventy-five statements from the point of view of how you see yourself at this exact moment in time.
2. First sort the statements into three piles.
 - A. On the left the statements which are "least like" you.
 - B. In the center place the in between statements.
 - C. On the right the statements which are "most like" you.
3. There are seventy-five spaces on the board arranged in nine columns. Statements which are "least like" you will be placed toward the number one side of the board. Statements which are "most like" you will be placed toward the number nine side of the board.
4. Statements in each column have the same value regardless of their order.
5. When you feel you have all the statements exactly on the board where you want them record the number of each statement on your score sheet.
6. Work at your own speed. When you finish turn in your packet of statements, score sheet, and direction sheet and you will be given another packet. Feel free to ask questions at any time.

DIRECTIONS
(Ideal-Sort)

1. Sort the seventy-five statements from the point of view of how you would ideally like to be.
2. First sort the statements into three piles.
 - A. On the left the statements which are "least like" you would ideally like to be.
 - B. An inbetween pile of statements.
 - C. On the right the statements which are "most like" you would ideally like to be.
3. There are seventy-five spaces on the board arranged in nine columns. Statements which are "least like" you ideally would like to be will be placed toward the number one side of the board. Statements which are "most like" you would ideally like to be will be placed toward the number nine side of the board.

4. Statements in each column have the same value regardless of their order.
5. When you feel you have all the statements exactly on the board where you want them record the number of each statement on your score sheet.
6. Work at your own speed. When you finish turn in your packet of statements, score sheet, and direction sheet. Feel free to ask questions at any time.

APPENDIX 3

Self-Concept
Learning Sheet
and
Evaluation Sheet

APPENDIX J

Self-Concept
Recording Sheet
and
Tabulation Sheet

Most Like Me

TABULATION SHEET

Name _____

TEST												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D	D ²	
1												
2												
3												
4												
5												

41

TABLE VI
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
SELF AND IDEAL-SELF SORTS
(SUBSTITUTE PLAYERS)

Subject Index	Self Sorts	Ideal Sorts
1	.479	.479
2	.489	.713
3	.509	.148
4		.401
5		.735
6		.284
7		.198
8		.770
9		.254
10		.208
11		.586
12		.329
13		.718
14		.432
15		.270

APPENDIX K

Correlation Coefficients Between
Self and Ideal-Self Sorts
(Substitute Players)

TABLE XI
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
SELF AND IDEAL-SELF SORTS
(SUBSTITUTE PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Initial Testing	Final Testing
1	.470	.478
2	.684	.712
3	.640	.528
4	.524	.672
5	.112	.338
6	.770	.778
7	.540	.826
8	.658	.744
9	.708	.788
10	.752	.576
11	.676	.652
12	.512	.520
13	.422	.524
14	.842	.718
15	.628	.632
16	.276	.240

TABLE VII
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
SELF AND IDEAL-SELF SORTS
(REGULAR PLAYERS)

Player	Initial Position	Final Position
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APPENDIX L

Correlation Coefficients Between
Self and Ideal-Self Sorts
(Regular Players)

TABLE XII
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN
SELF AND IDEAL-SELF SORTS
(REGULAR PLAYERS)

Subject Number	Initial Testing	Final Testing
17	.498	.576
18	.644	.584
19	.650	.646
20	.718	.820
21	.640	.678
22	.370	.164
23	.586	.638
24	.586	.598
25	.606	.638
26	.766	.770
27	.766	.478

APPENDIX M

Nomograph

NOMOGRAPH

